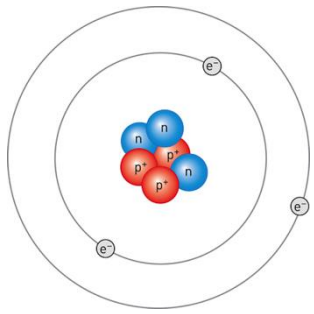


Nuclear radiations

Dóra Haluszka, PhD

05/12/2025





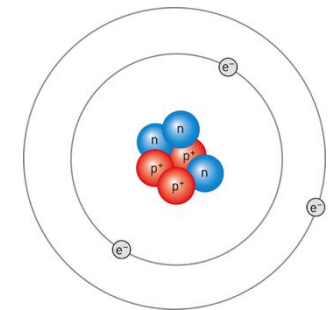
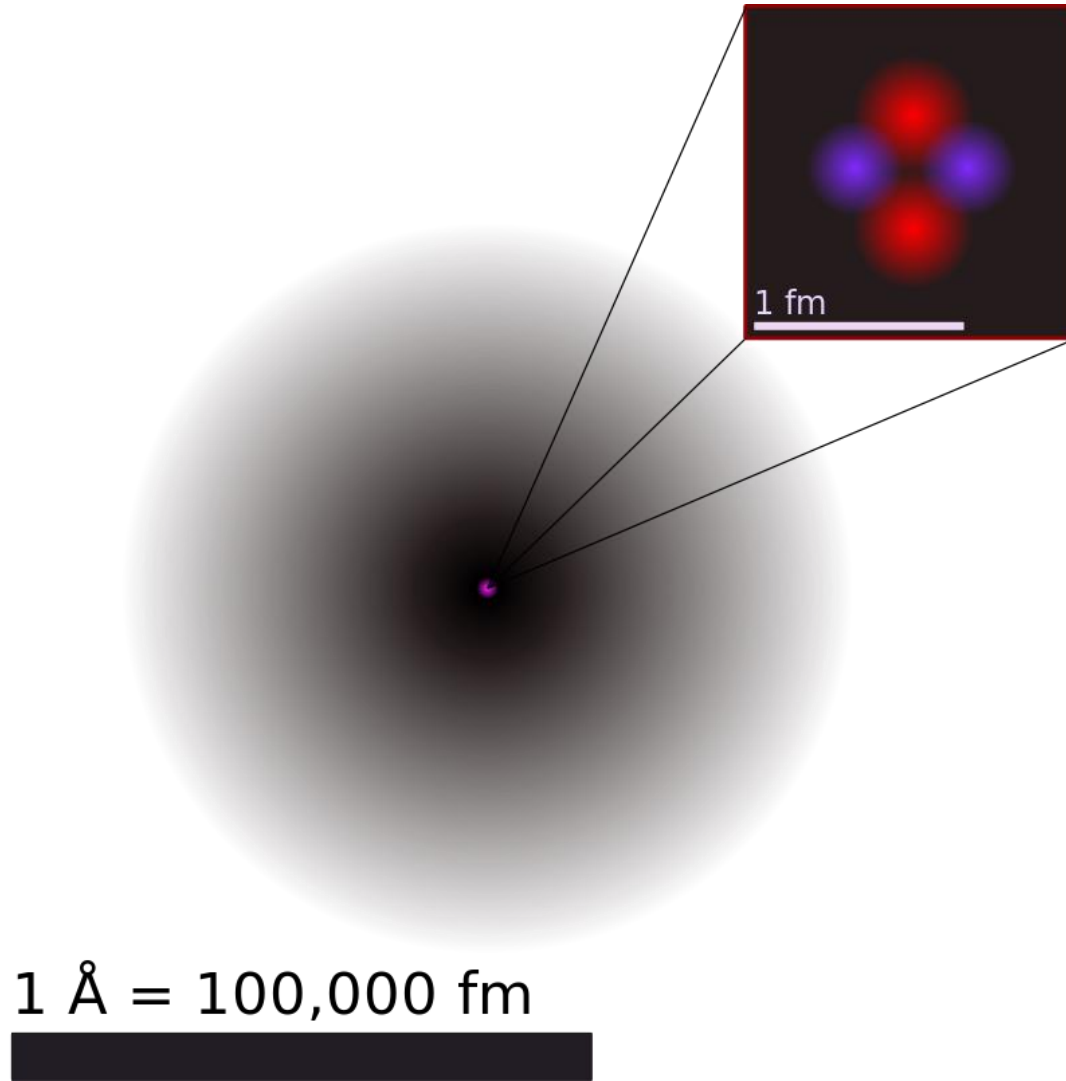
Constituents of atoms

Particle	Symbol	Resting Energy (MeV)	Relative Charge*	Mass (kg)	Relative Mass (AMU)**
electron	e	0.51100	1-	9.11×10^{-31}	5.4858×10^{-4}
proton	p	938.272	1+	1.6726×10^{-27}	1.0072765
neutron	n	939.566	0	1.6749×10^{-27}	1.0086649

* electrons have an electric charge of -1.602×10^{-19} C

**The atomic mass unit is defined as 1/12 of the carbon (^{12}C) atom

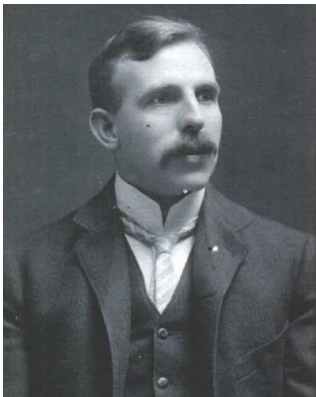
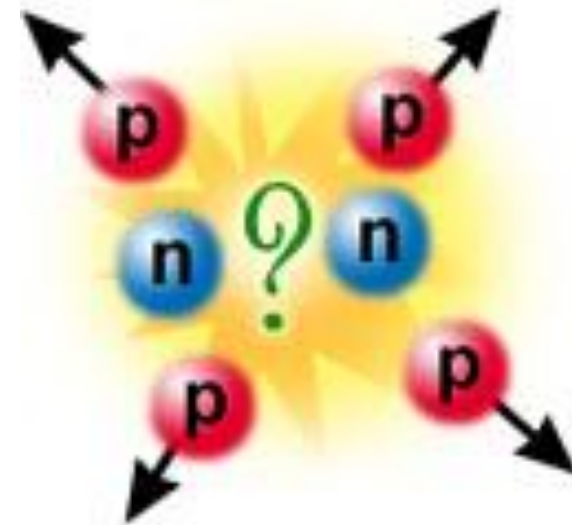
Nucleus size



Nuclear stability

There are very large *repulsive electrostatic forces* between protons should cause the nucleus to fly apart

It must be an attractive force be present within the nucleus!



Rutherford, 1911 - nuclear force:
an attractive force acting on short distances within the nucleus,
independent of charges, and stronger than the Coulomb forces.

The hypothesis of neutron (discovered by Chadwick in 1932)

Nuclear notation

Mass number

$$A = Z + N$$



*Chemical symbol for
the element*

*Atomic number =
Number of protons*



*N = number of neutrons
nucleon = proton or neutron*

Nuclear stability

$$\Delta M = [Zm_p + (A-Z)m_n] - M(A,Z)$$

The mass defect (or mass deficit) problem: the mass of a nucleus is less than the mass of its constituent nucleons. The difference can be explained by Einstein's law of mass-energy equivalence:

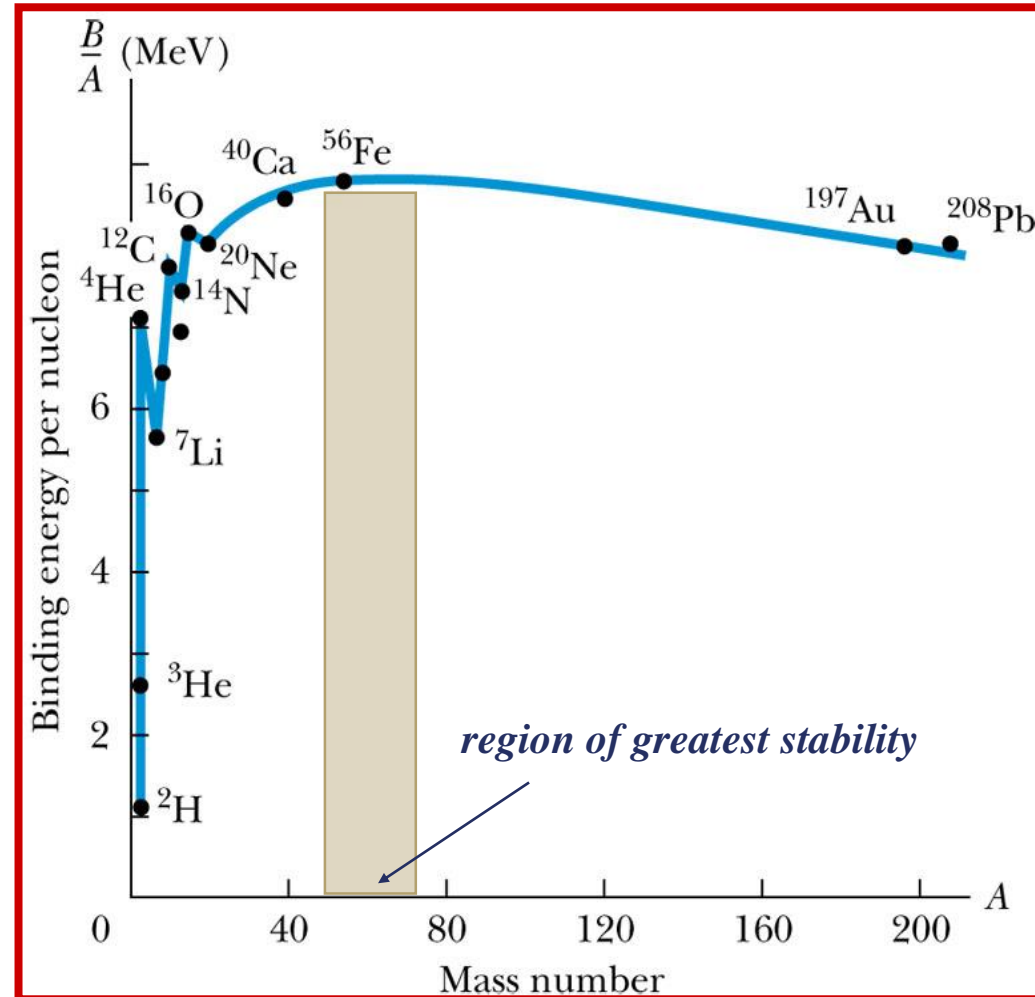
$$\Delta E = \Delta M c^2$$

The energy corresponding to the mass defect is the binding energy of the nucleons.

Binding energy per nucleon

- The curve increases rapidly
- Sharp peaks for the even-even nuclei for ${}^4_2\text{He}$, ${}^{12}_6\text{C}$, and ${}^{16}_8\text{O}$
- Maximum is around $A=56$

nucleon = proton or neutron



Isotopes

Greek *isos topos = equal place*

Isotopes of an element have nuclei with

- the same number of protons
- different numbers of neutrons
- different mass number

isotope = same place = same atomic number

Mendeleev's Periodic Table of Elements

Table of Common Polyatomic Ions

acetate	$C_2H_3O_2^-$	silicate	SiO_3^{2-}
chlorate	ClO_3^-	sulfate	SO_4^{2-}
hydroxide	OH^-	thiosulfate	$S_2O_3^{2-}$
nitrate	NO_3^-		
permanganate	MnO_4^-	arsenate	AsO_4^{3-}
		phosphate	PO_4^{3-}
carbonate	CO_3^{2-}	ammonium	NH_4^+
chromate	CrO_4^{2-}	hydronium	H_3O^+
dichromate	$Cr_2O_7^{2-}$		

Element categories

- Alkali metals
- Alkaline-earth metals
- Transition metals
- Other metals
- Hydrogen
- Semiconductors
- Halogens
- Noble gases
- Other nonmetals

State of matter at 25 °C

Gas	Liquid	Solid	Artificially prepared		Unknown
13 IIIA	14 IVA	15 VA	16 VIA	17 VIIA	18 VIIIA

1 IA												18 VIIIA						
1	H 1.008											2	He 4.003					
2	Li 6.941	Be 9.0122											Ne 20.179					
3	Na 22.990	Mg 24.305	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	Al 26.982	Si 28.086	P 30.974	S 32.065	Cl 35.453	Ar 39.948
4	K 39.098	Ca 40.078	Sc 44.956	Ti 47.867	V 50.942	Cr 51.996	Mn 54.938	Fe 55.845	Co 58.933	Ni 58.693	Cu 63.546	Zn 65.39	Ga 69.723	Ge 72.64	As 74.922	Se 78.96	Br 79.904	Kr 83.80
5	Rb 85.468	Sr 87.62	Y 88.906	Zr 91.224	Nb 92.906	Mo 95.94	Tc (98)	Ru 101.07	Rh 102.91	Pd 106.42	Ag 107.87	Cd 112.41	In 114.82	Sn 118.71	Sb 121.76	Te 127.60	I 126.90	Xe 131.29
6	Cs 132.91	Ba 137.33		Hf 178.49	Ta 180.95	W 183.84	Re 186.21	Os 190.23	Ir 192.22	Pt 195.08	Au 196.97	Hg 200.59	Tl 204.38	Pb 207.2	Bi 208.98	Po (209)	At (210)	Rn (222)
7	Fr (223)	Ra (226)		Rf (261)	Db (262)	Sg (266)	Bh (264)	Hs (277)	Mt (268)	Uun (281)	Uuu (272)	Uub (285)	Uut (284)	Uuq (289)	Uup (288)	Uuh (291)	Uus (294)	Uuo (294)
			La 138.91	Ce 140.12	Pr 140.91	Nd 144.24	Pm (145)	Sm 150.36	Eu 151.96	Gd 157.25	Tb 158.93	Dy 162.50	Ho 164.93	Er 167.26	Tm 168.93	Yb 173.04	Lu 174.97	
			Ac 227	Th 232.04	Pa 231.04	U 238.03	Np (237)	Pu (244)	Am (243)	Cm (247)	Bk (247)	Cf (251)	Es (252)	Fm (257)	Md (258)	No (259)	Lr (262)	

Selected Oxidation States

Atomic Number

Symbol

Electron Configuration

Atomic Mass

21	Sc
44.956	
2s ² 3s ² 3p ⁶ 3d ¹ 4s ²	

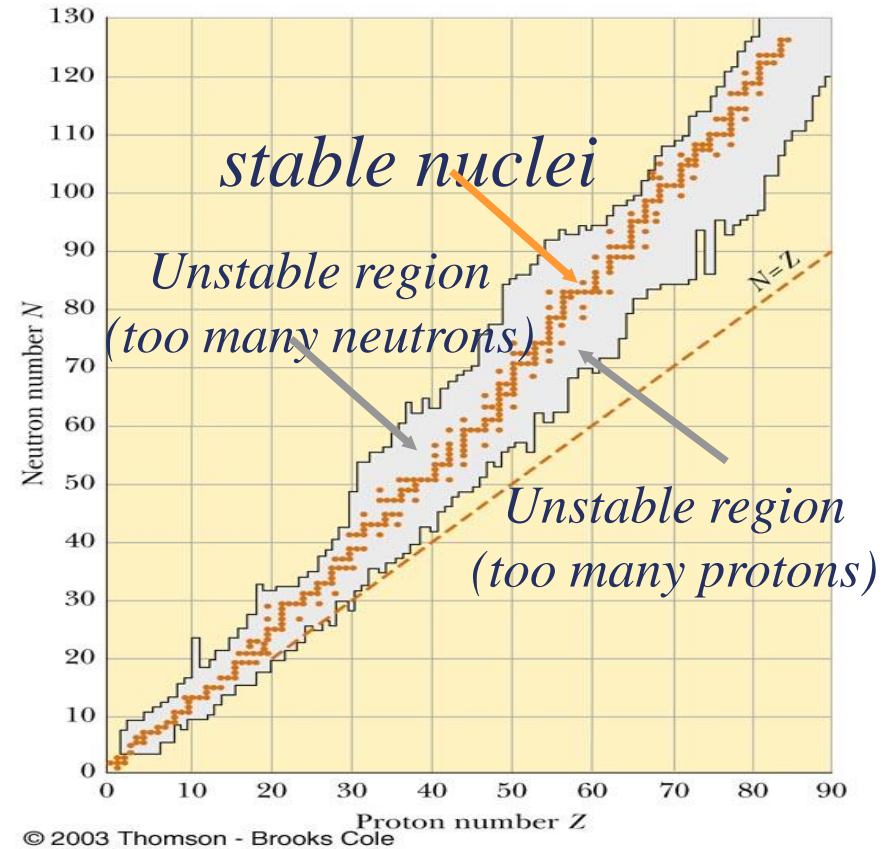
From Russia with divita.eu

Nuclear stability chart

- Light nuclei are most stable if
 $N=Z$
- Heavy nuclei are most stable when
 $N > Z$

As the number of protons increases, the Coulomb force increases and so more neutrons are needed to keep the nucleus stable

- No nucleus is stable when $Z > 83$



What does it mean „unstable”?

Radioactive decay



Antoine Becquerel
1903 Nobel Prize in Physics for
discovering radioactivity



Image of Becquerel's photographic plate which has been fogged by exposure to radiation from an uranium salt. The shadow of a metal Maltese Cross placed between the plate and the uranium salt is clearly visible. (1896)

Radioactive decay

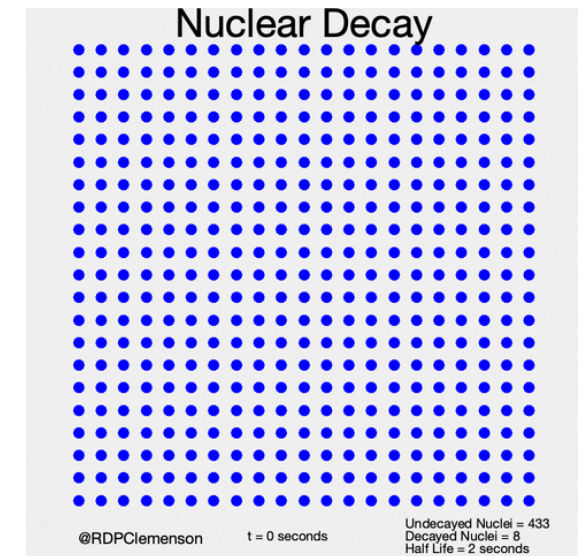
- **Radioactivity** is the spontaneous release of energy in the form of particles or electromagnetic waves
- Experiments suggested that radioactivity was the result of the decay of **unstable nuclei**
- Three types of radiation can be emitted

Alpha (α) particles

Beta (β) particles

Gamma (γ) rays

- it is a *statistical process* - individual disintegrations occur **randomly**
- it results in a **decrease over time** of the initial number of unstable (radioactive) nuclei



Characteristics of radioactive decay

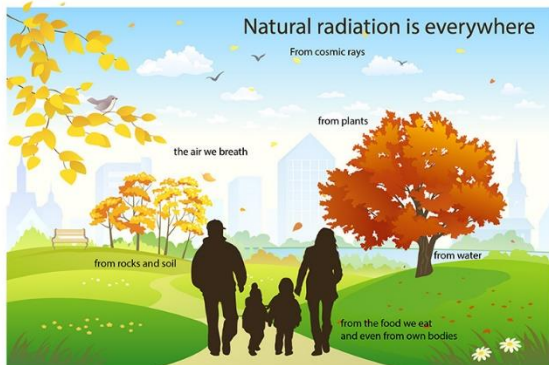
Activity: $\Lambda = \left| \frac{\Delta N}{\Delta t} \right|$

N: number of nuclei to be decayed
t: time

Activity = number of nuclei decayed in a unit time

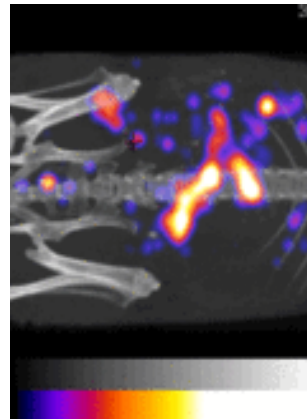
unit: becquerel (Bq) 1Bq = 1 decay/sec

background



kBq,

diagnostics



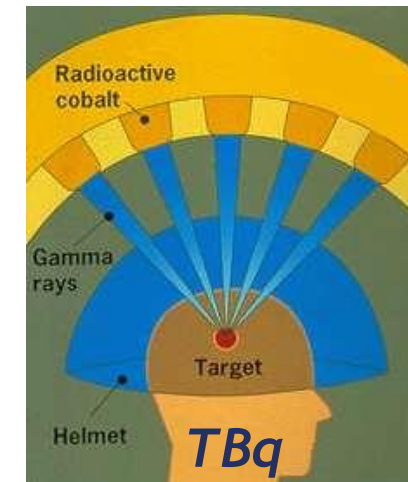
MBq,

laboratory practice



GBq,

therapy



Radioactive decay law

Differential form: $\left| \frac{\Delta N}{\Delta t} \right| = -\lambda N$

solution

λ : decay constant, characteristic for isotopes (1/s)

Integral form: $N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$

N_0 : number of radioactive nuclei at $t=0$,

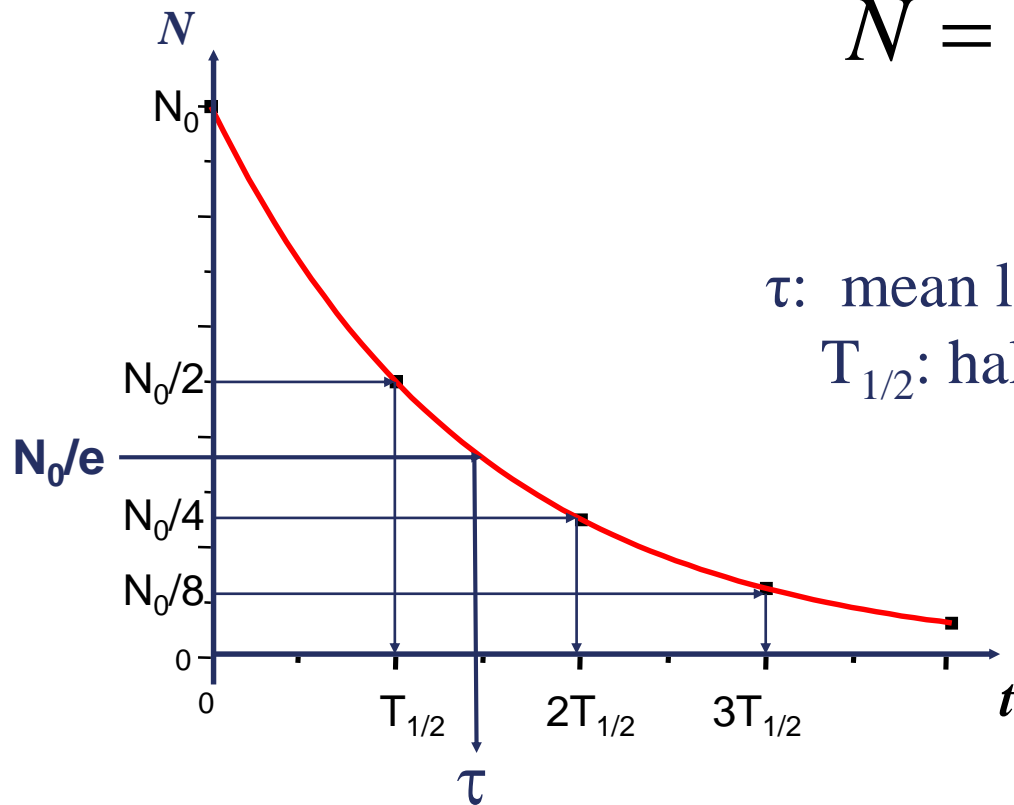
N : number of remaining radioactive nuclei at a later time t

Activity depends both on the type of isotope and on the size of the population of unstable (radioactive) nuclei

Specific activity: activity in a unit mass of isotope (Bq/kg)

Graphical representation

$$N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$



If $t = \tau$



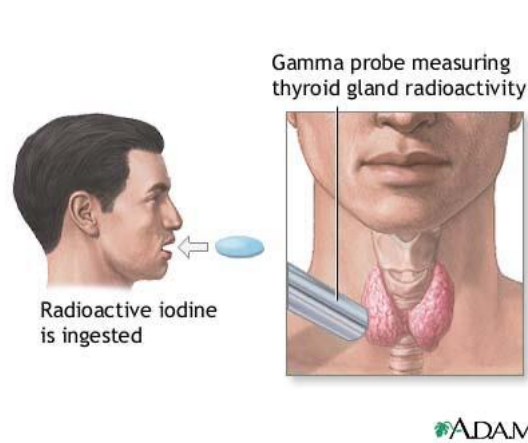
$$N_0 / e = N_0 e^{-\lambda \tau}$$



$$\lambda = \frac{1}{\tau}$$

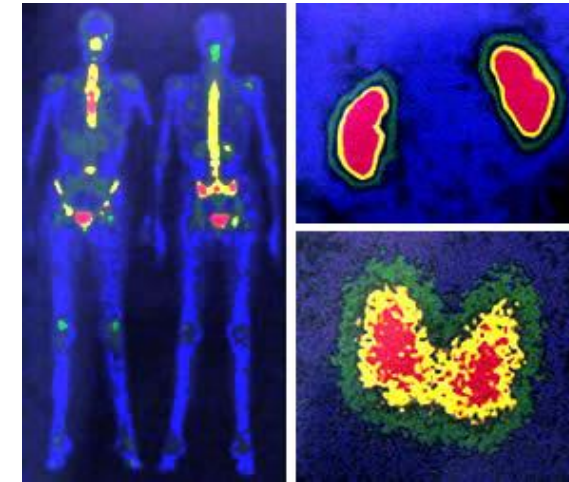
$$\text{If } t = T_{1/2} \longrightarrow N_0 / 2 = N_0 e^{-\lambda T_{1/2}} \longrightarrow \lambda = \frac{\ln 2}{T_{1/2}} = \frac{0.693}{T_{1/2}}$$

Half-lives in Medical Practice



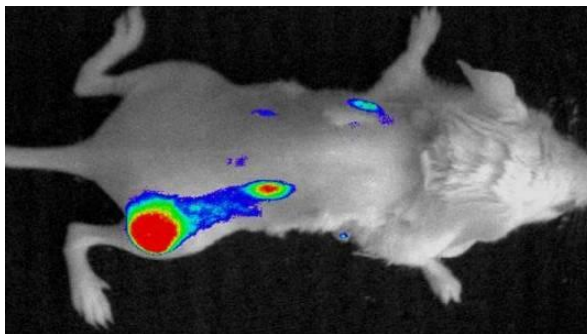
Iodine - 131 (^{131}I) - $T_{1/2} = 8$ days

Thyroid treatment



Technetium-99m ($^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$) - $T_{1/2} = 6$ hours

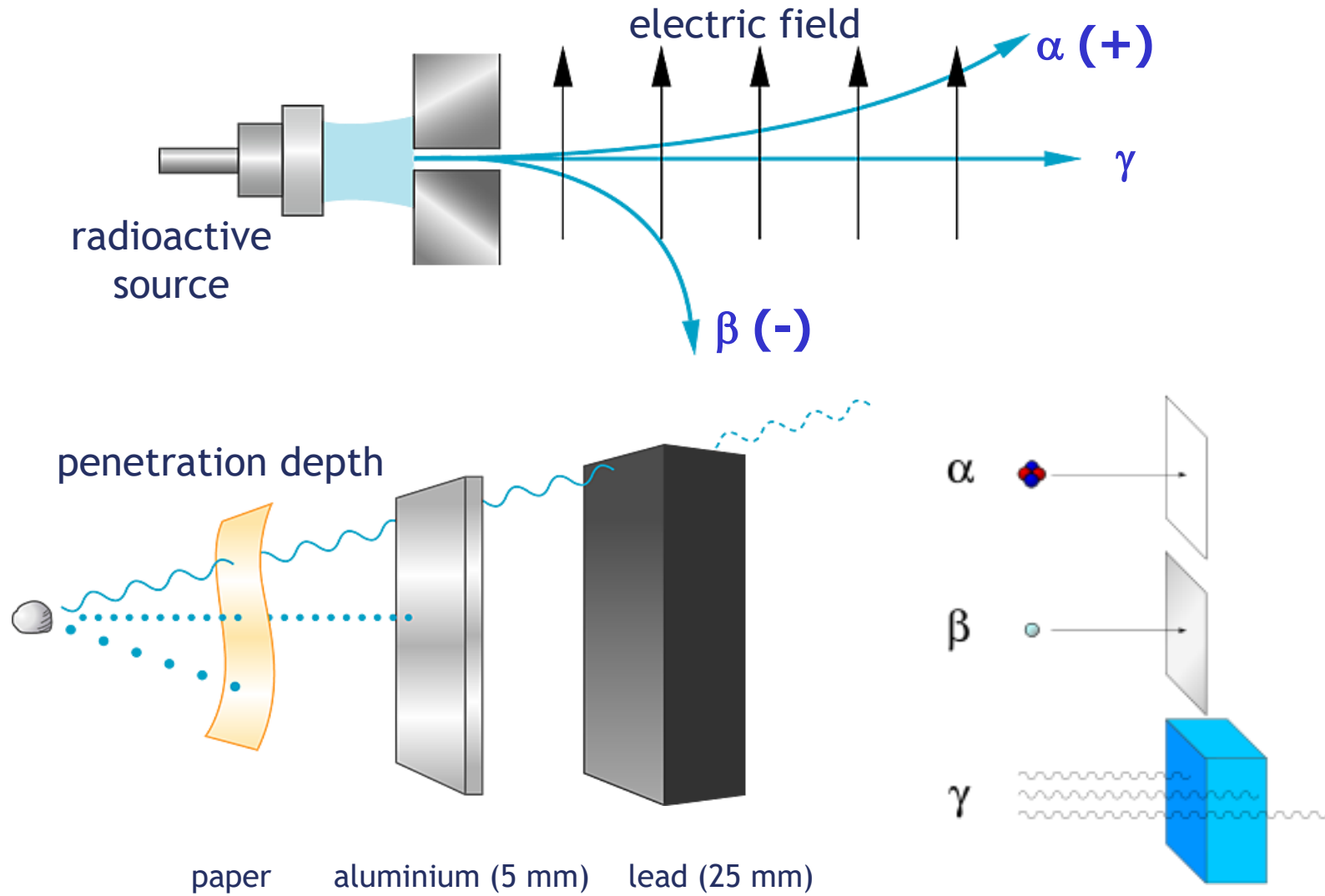
Isotope diagnostics



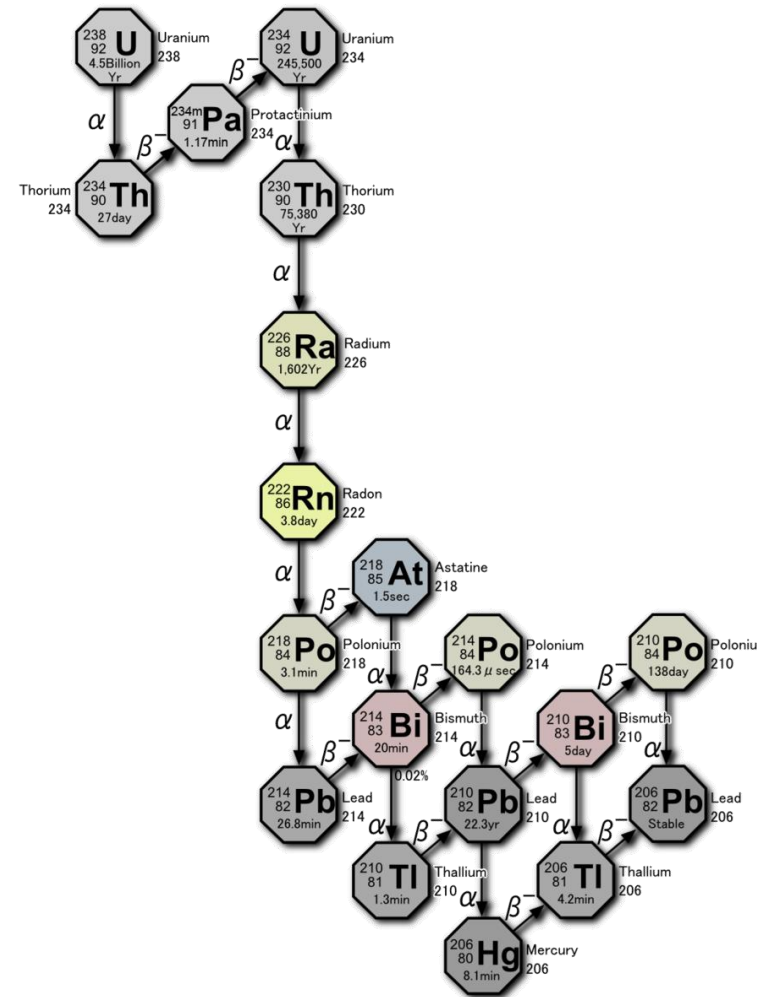
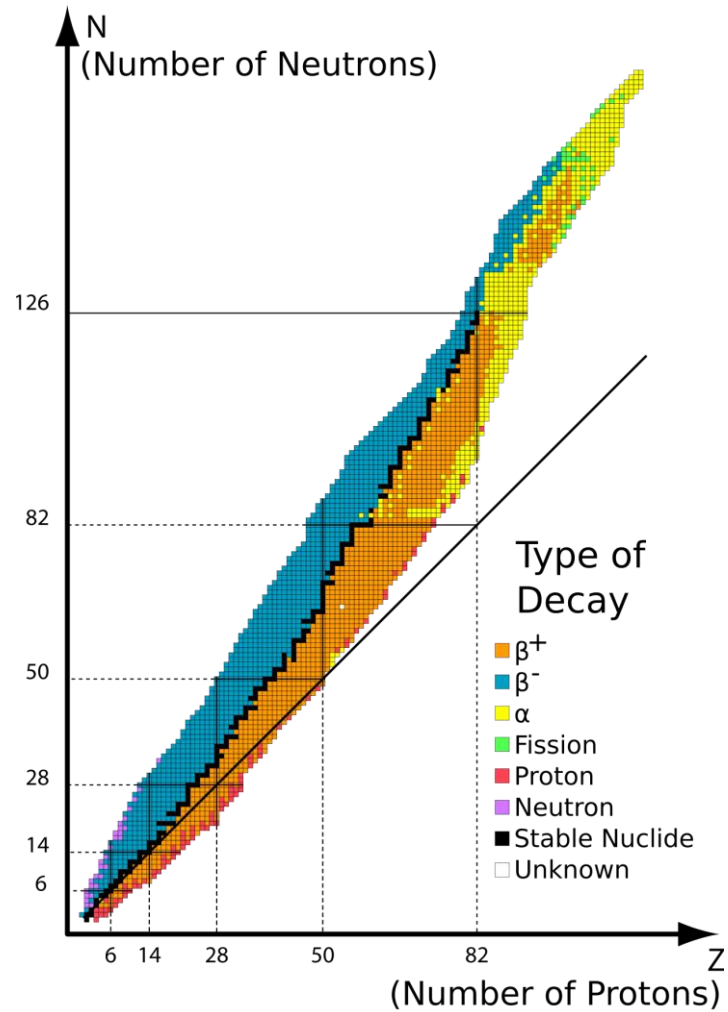
Gold-198 (^{198}Au) - $T_{1/2} = 2.7$ days

Tumor therapy

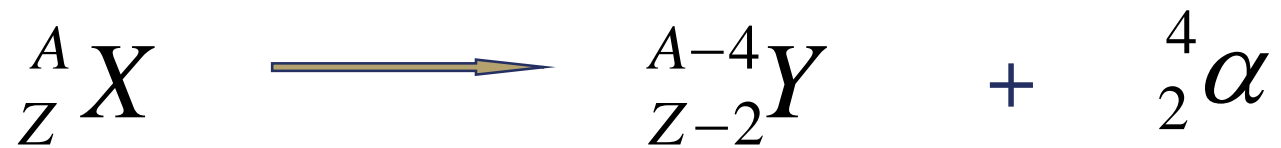
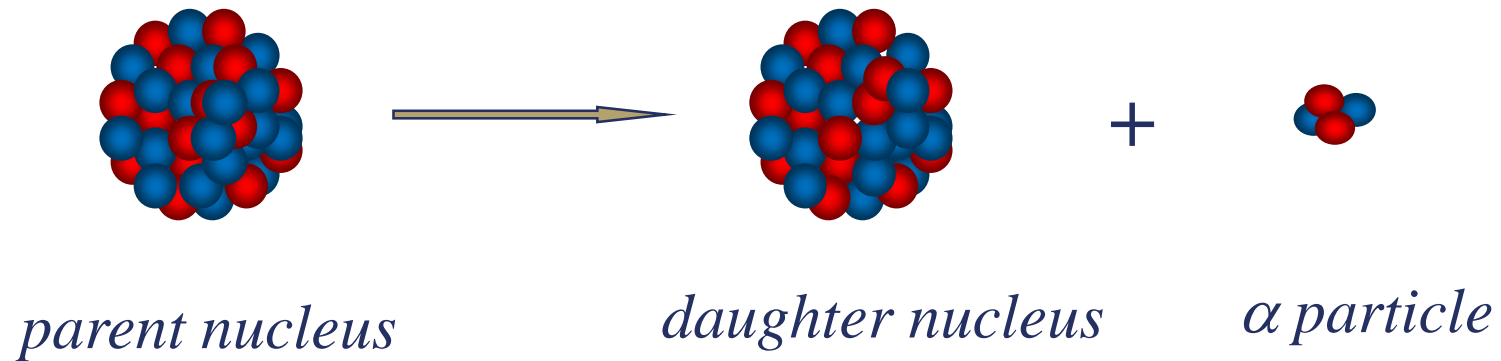
Types of radioactive decay



Types of radioactive decay



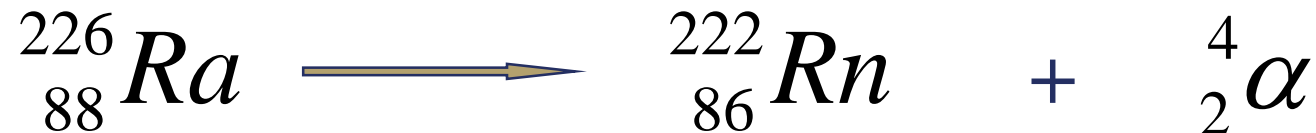
α decay



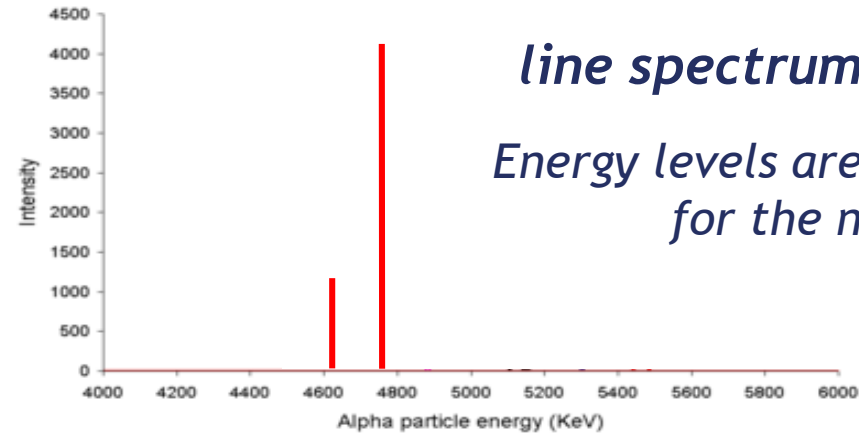
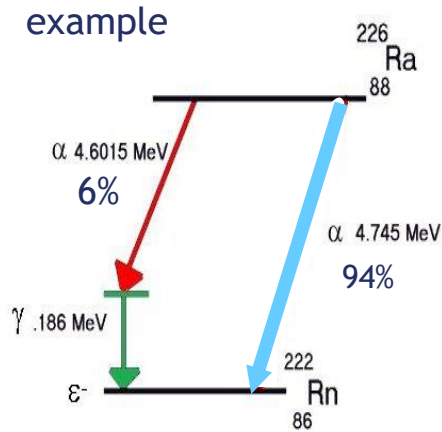
α particle is a nucleus of helium containing two neutrons and two protons

Heavy nuclei ($A > 150$) can disintegrate by emission of an α particle

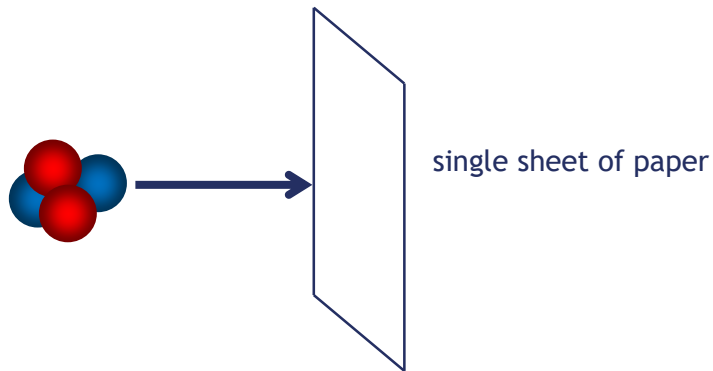
example:



Energy spectrum, penetration depth, application of α radiation



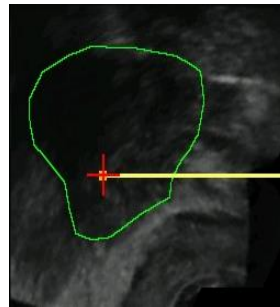
Energy levels are characteristic for the nucleus



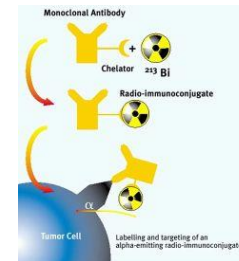
Diagnostics: none!!!

Targeted alpha therapy of cancer

absorber	density	alpha range
air (STP)	1.2 mg/cm ³	3.7 cm
paper (20lb)	0.89 g/cm ³	53 μm
water (soft tissue)	1.0 g/cm ³	45 μm



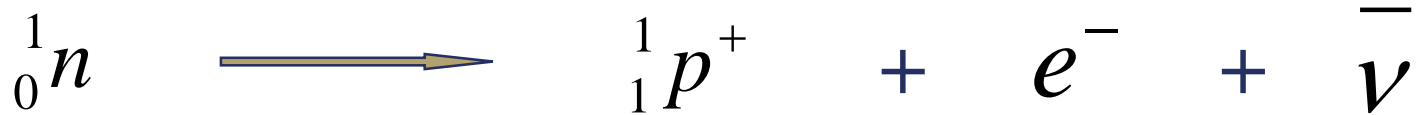
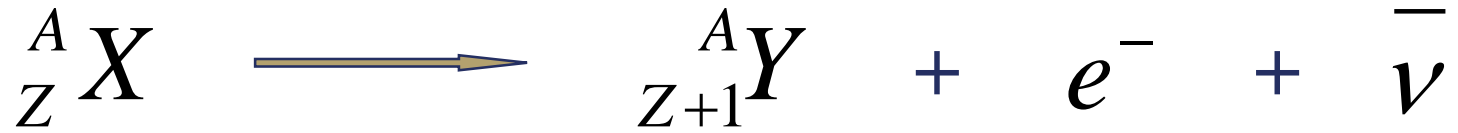
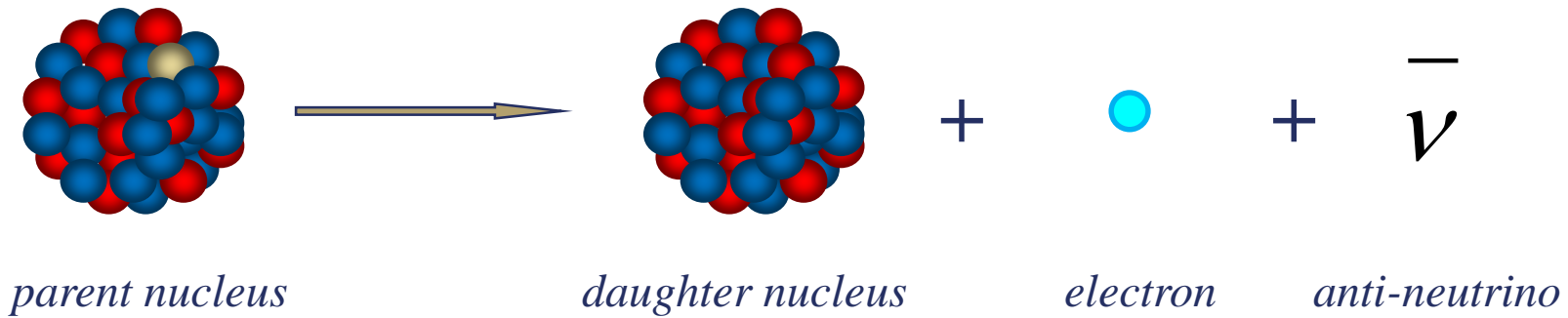
Seed implantation by needle



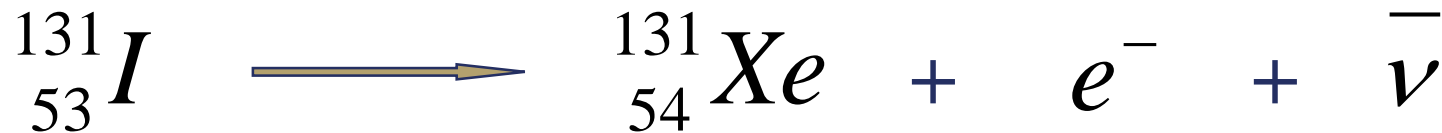
Monoclonal antibody

β decay

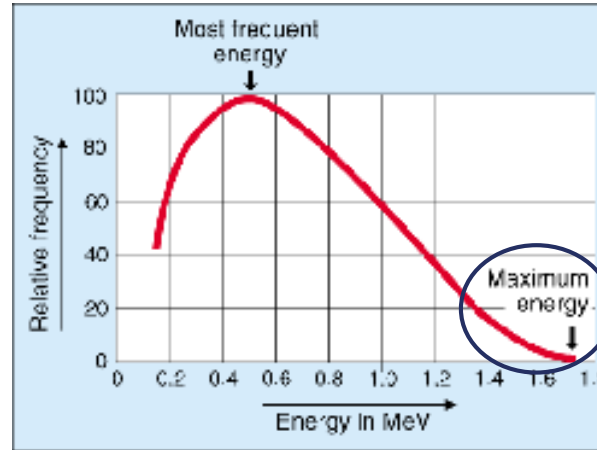
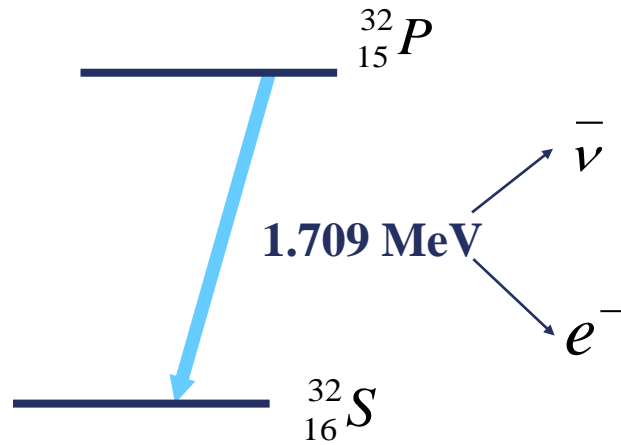
1. Neutron excess: β^- decay



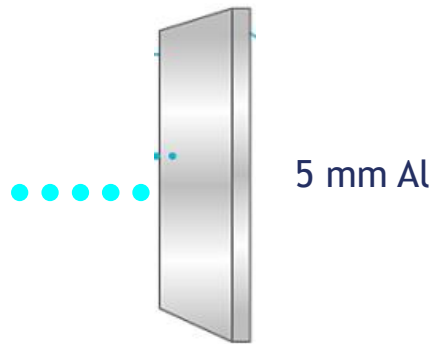
example:



Energy spectrum, penetration depth, application of β - radiation



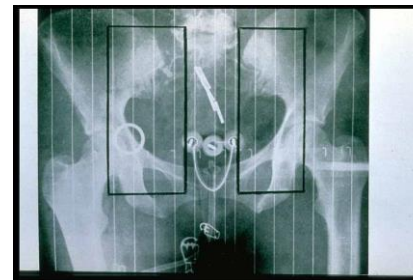
continuous spectrum with a maximum kinetic energy for the β particle



<i>absorber</i>	<i>density</i>	<i>maximum beta range</i>	
		<i>(2.3 MeV)</i>	<i>(1.1 MeV)</i>
air	1.2 mg/cm ³	8.8 m	3.8 m
water (soft tissue)	1.0 g/cm ³	11 mm	4.6 mm
aluminum	2.7 g/cm ³	4.2 mm	2.0 mm
lead	11.3 g/cm ³	1.0 mm	0.4 mm

Diagnostics: none!!!

Targeted therapy: hyperthyroidism, thyroid, prostate, and several other types of cancer



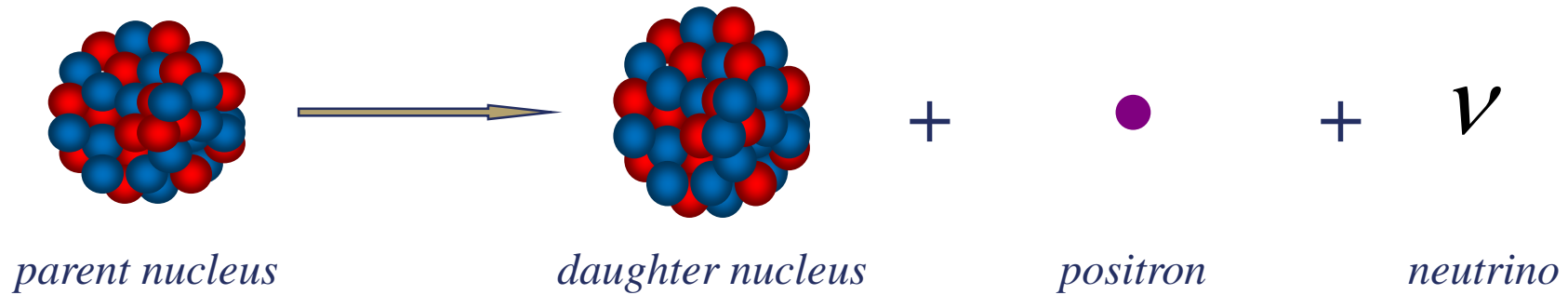
Brachytherapy: implants into the tumours



Endovascular irradiation

β decay

2. Proton excess: β^+ decay

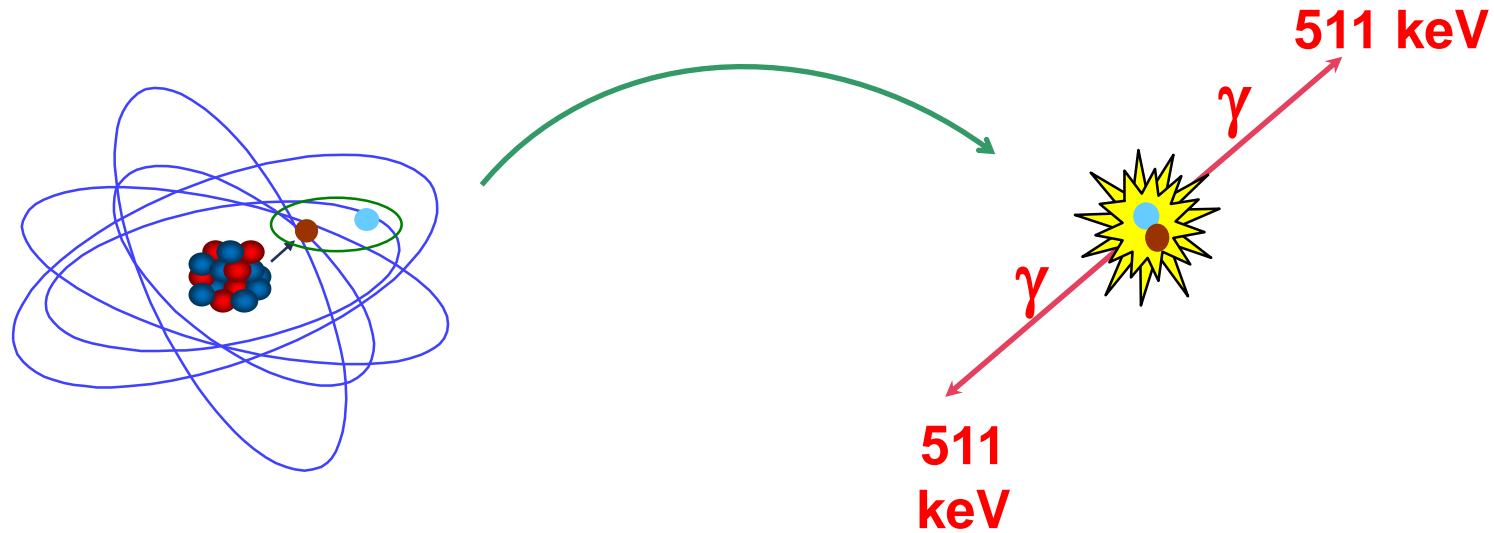


example:



Annihilation

- particle-antiparticle pairs annihilate each other



1. Conservation of momentum: two γ photons with opposite direction are produced

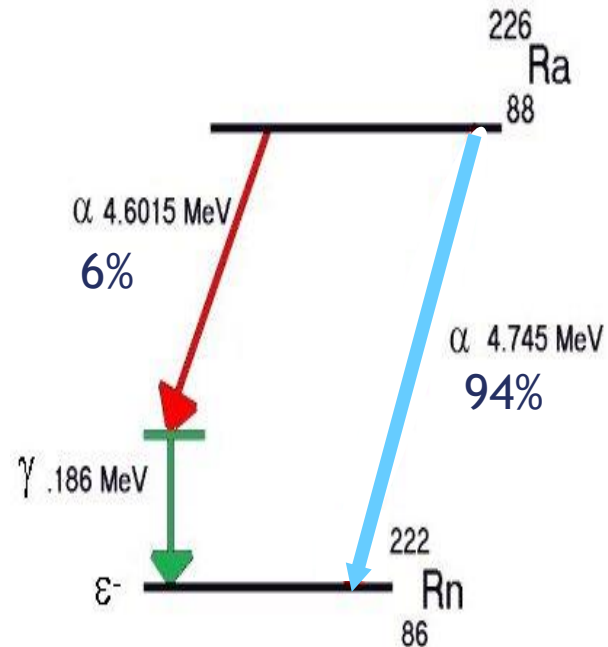
2. Energy balance:

$$m_e c^2 + m_p c^2 = 2 h f$$

mass-energy equivalence

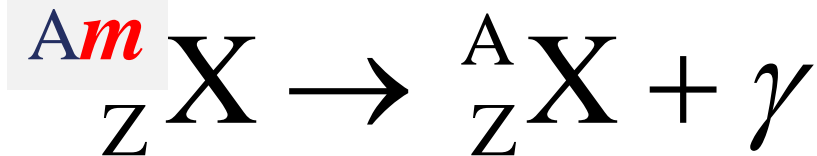
γ decay – Isomeric transition

Sometimes the newly formed isotopes (after α or β decay) appear in the excited state.

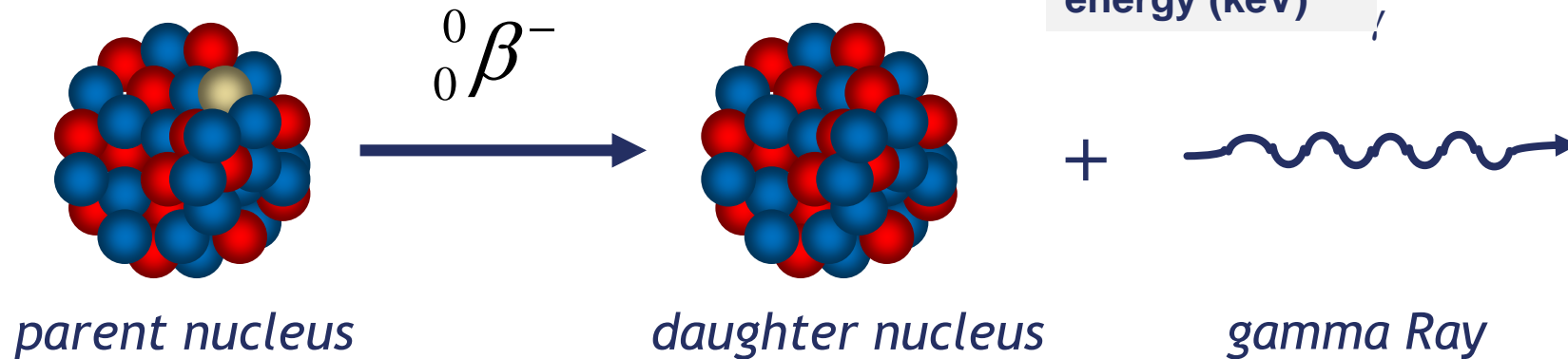
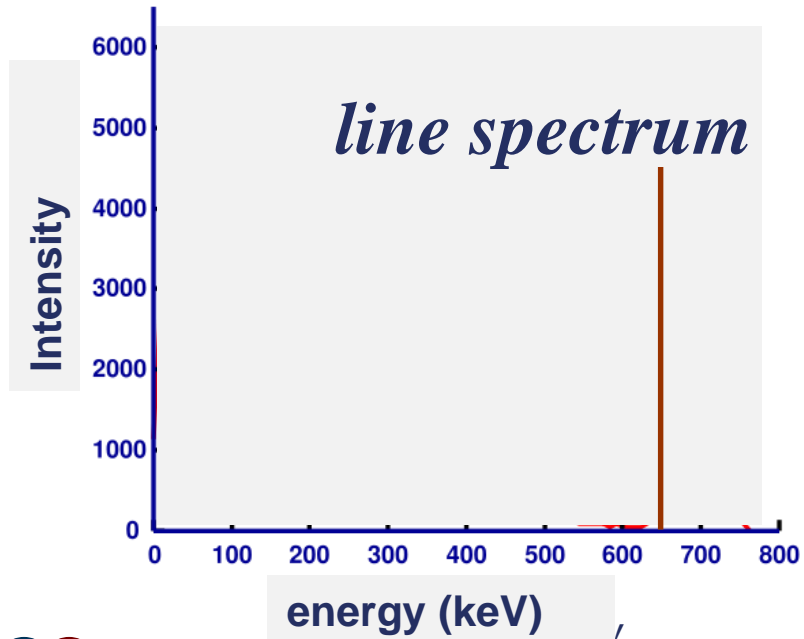
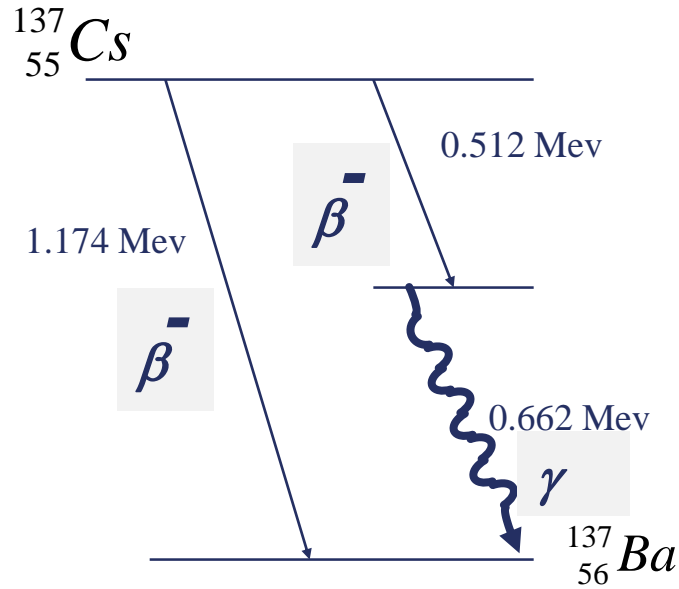


Excited nuclides release the excess of energy by emission of gamma rays.

half-life ranging from hours up to more than 600 years

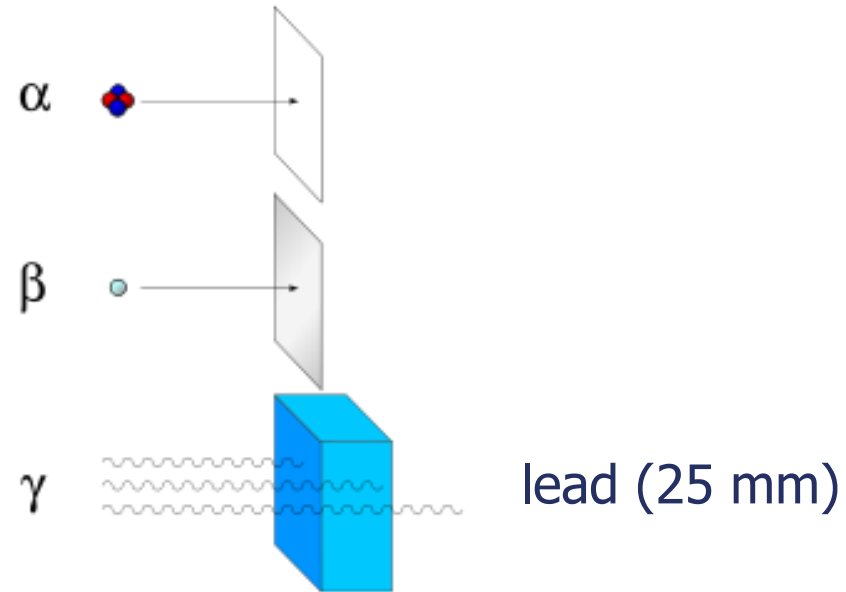


Energy spectrum of γ radiation



Energy is characteristic for the nucleus

Penetration depth of γ radiation

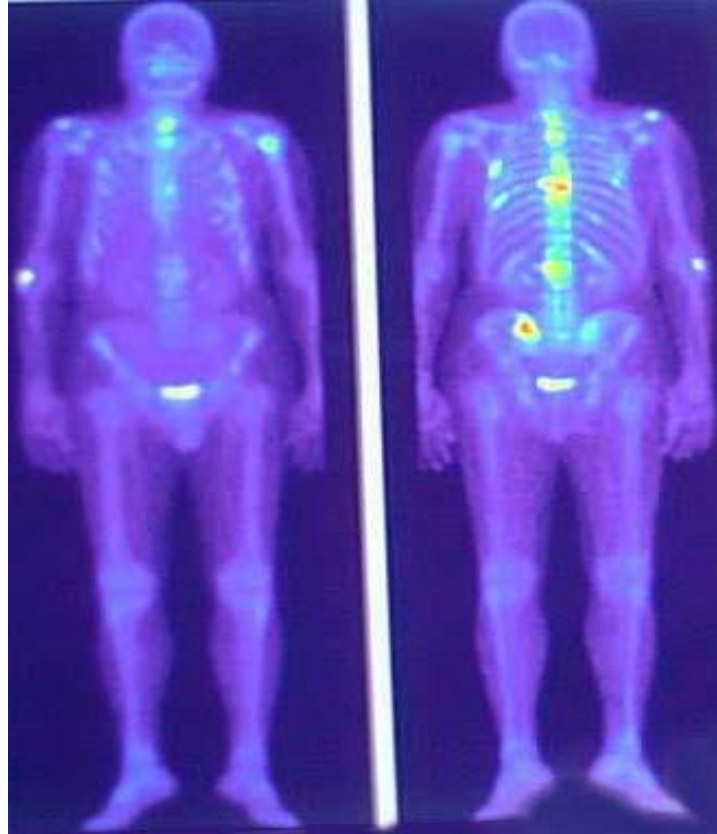


Penetration depth is higher than that of α or β particles, but it is highly energy dependent.

Gamma rays can travel **hundreds of meters in the air** and can easily pass **through the human body (~dm)**.

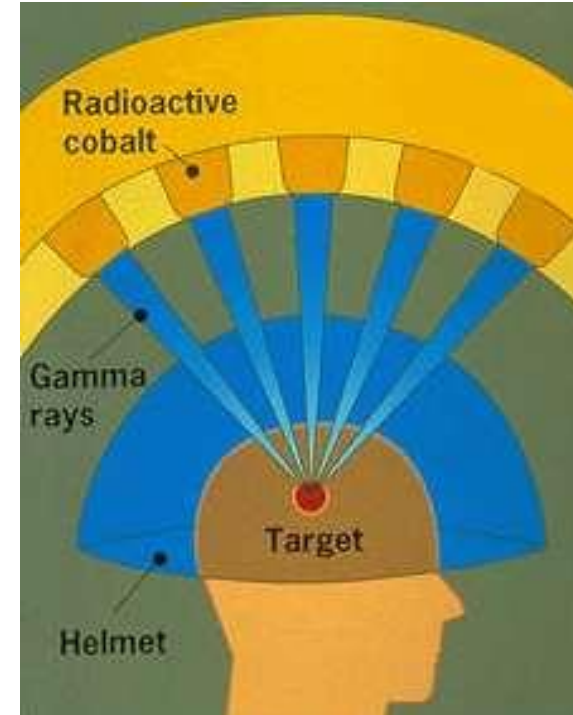
Medical application of γ rays

Diagnostics:
ideal for isotope diagnostics



Bone scan using ^{99m}Tc labeled phosphate compound

Therapy: γ -knife



TBq

Checklist

Composition and stability of the nucleus

Origin of nuclear force

Radioactive decay law - differential and integral form

Decay constant, half-life, mean life time

Types of nuclear radiation and their characteristics